### **BLM2041 Signals and Systems**

### **Syllabus**

#### The Instructors:

Doç. Dr. Ali Can Karaca

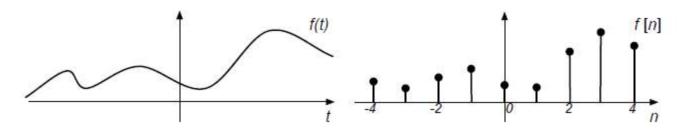
ackaraca@yildiz.edu.tr

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Erkan Uslu

euslu@yildiz.edu.tr

#### Continuous and Discrete Time Signals

- Most of the signals we will talk about are functions of time.
- There are many ways to classify signals. This class is organized according to whether the signals are continuous in time, or discrete.
- A continuous-time signal has values for all points in time in some (possibly infinite) interval.
- A discrete time signal has values for only discrete points in time.



 Signals can also be a function of space (images) or of space and time (video), and may be continuous or discrete in each dimension.

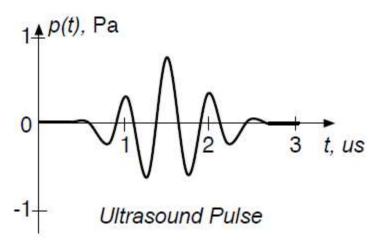
#### Types of Systems

Systems are classified according to the types of input and output signals

- Continuous-time system has continuous-time inputs and outputs.
  - AM or FM radio
  - Conventional (all mechanical) car
- Discrete-time system has discrete-time inputs and outputs.
  - PC computer game
  - Matlab
  - Your mortgage
- Hybrid systems are also very important (A/D, D/A converters).
  - You playing a game on a PC
  - Modern cars with ECU (electronic control units)
  - Most commercial and military aircraft

#### Continuous Time Signals

- Function of a time variable, something like t,  $\tau$ ,  $t_1$ .
- The entire signal is denoted as v, v(.), or v(t), where t is a dummy variable.
- The value of the signal at a particular time is v(1.2), or v(t), t=2.

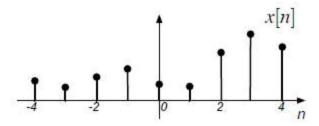


#### Discrete Time Signals

- Fundamentally, a discrete-time signal is sequence of samples, written x[n]
  - where n is an integer over some (possibly infinite) interval.
- Often, at least conceptually, samples of a continuous time signal

$$x[n] = x(nT)$$

where n is an integer, and T is the sampling period.

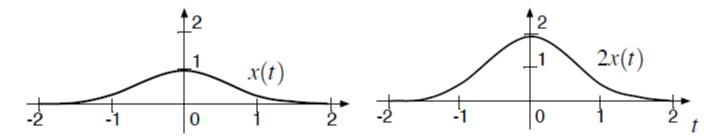


Discrete time signals may not represent uniform time samples

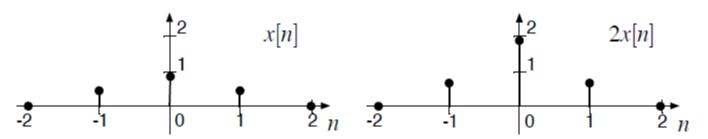
## **Operations on Signals**

#### **Amplitude Scaling**

• The scaled signal ax(t) is x(t) multiplied by the constant a

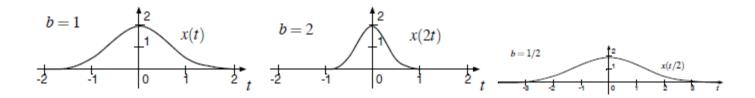


• The scaled signal ax[n] is x[n] multiplied by the constant a



#### Time Scaling, Continuous Time

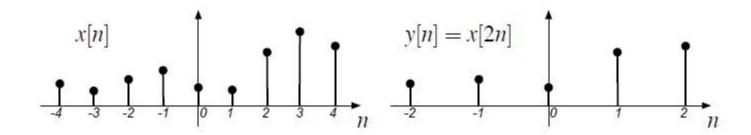
A signal x(t) is scaled in time by multiplying the time variable by a positive constant b, to produce x(bt). A positive factor of b either expands (0 < b < 1) or compresses (b > 1) the signal in time.



#### Time Scaling, Discrete Time

The discrete-time sequence x[n] is *compressed* in time by multiplying the index n by an integer k, to produce the time-scaled sequence x[nk].

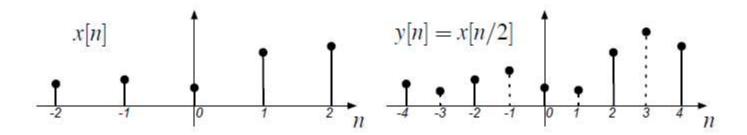
- This extracts every  $k^{th}$  sample of x[n].
- Intermediate samples are lost.
- The sequence is shorter.



Called downsampling, or decimation.

The discrete-time sequence x[n] is expanded in time by dividing the index n by an integer m, to produce the time-scaled sequence x[n/m].

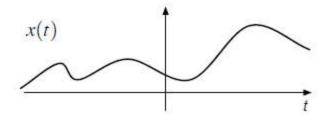
- This specifies every  $m^{th}$  sample.
- The intermediate samples must be synthesized (set to zero, or interpolated).
- The sequence is longer.

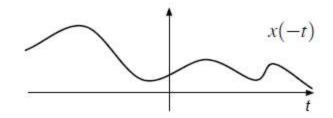


Called upsampling, or interpolation.

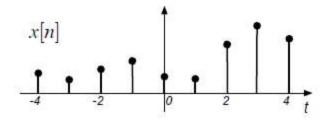
#### Time Reversal

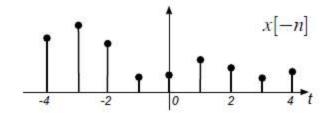
• Continuous time: replace t with -t, time reversed signal is x(-t)





• Discrete time: replace n with -n, time reversed signal is x[-n].



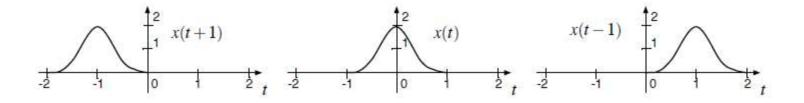


• Same as time scaling, but with b = -1.

#### Time Shift

For a continuous-time signal x(t), and a time  $t_1 > 0$ ,

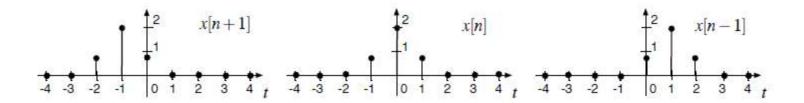
- Replacing t with  $t t_1$  gives a delayed signal  $x(t t_1)$
- Replacing t with  $t + t_1$  gives an advanced signal  $x(t + t_1)$



• May seem counterintuitive. Think about where  $t - t_1$  is zero.

For a discrete time signal x[n], and an integer  $n_1 > 0$ 

- $x[n-n_1]$  is a delayed signal.
- $x[n + n_1]$  is an advanced signal.
- The delay or advance is an integer number of sample times.

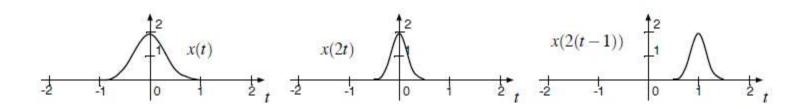


• Again, where is  $n - n_1$  zero?

#### Combinations of Operations

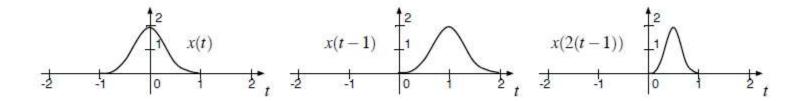
- Time scaling, shifting, and reversal can all be combined.
- Operation can be performed in any order, but care is required.
- This will cause confusion.
- Example: x(2(t-1))

Scale first, then shift Compress by 2, shift by 1



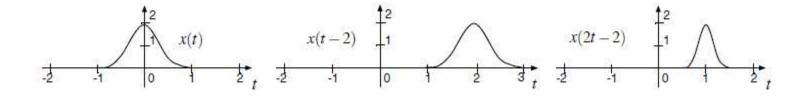
Example x(2(t-1)), continued Shift first, then scale Shift by 1, compress by 2

Incorrect



Shift first, then scale Rewrite x(2(t-1)) = x(2t-2)Shift by 2, scale by 2

Correct

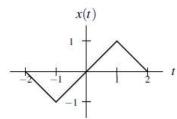


Where is 2(t-1) equal to zero?

#### Örnek

y(t) = x(2t-1) işaretini çiziniz.

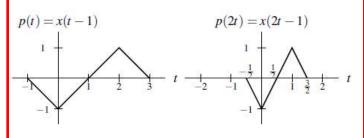
Given x(t) as shown below, find x(2t-1).



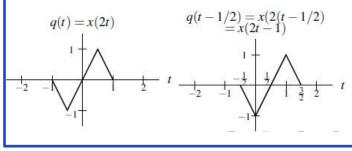
2 farklı yol var:

- 1) Önce zamanda ötele, Sonra zamanda ölçekle
- 2) Önce zamanda ökçel..., sonra zamanda ötele.

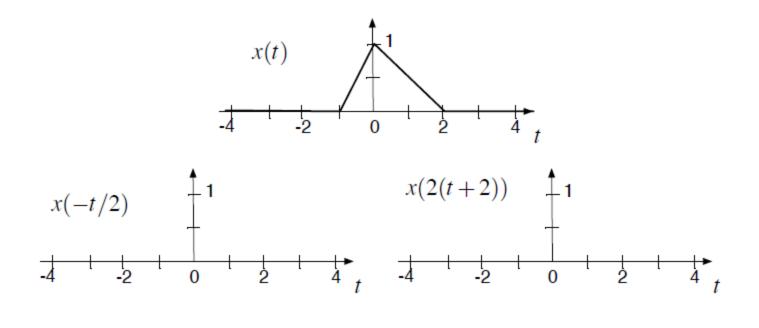
time shift by 1 and then time scale by 2

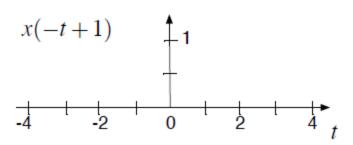


time scale by 2 and then time shift by  $\frac{1}{2}$ 



Try these yourselves ....





#### Periodic Signals

- Very important in this class.
- Continuous time signal is periodic if and only if there exists a  $T_0 > 0$  such that

$$x(t + T_0) = x(t)$$
 for all t

 $T_0$  is the period of x(t) in time.

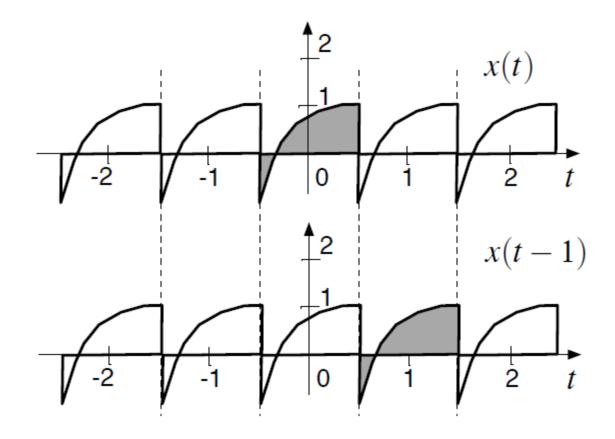
• A discrete-time signal is periodic if and only if there exists an integer  $N_0 > 0$  such that

$$x[n + N_0] = x[n]$$
 for all  $n$ 

 $N_0$  is the period of x[n] in sample spacings.

• The smallest  $T_0$  or  $N_0$  is the fundamental period of the periodic signal.

#### Example:

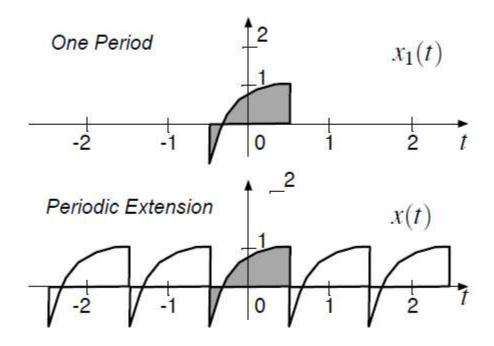


Shifting x(t) by 1 time unit results in the same signal.

Common periodic signals are sines and cosines

#### Periodic Extension

• Periodic signals can be generated by *periodic extension* by any segment of length one period  $T_0$  (or a multiple of the period).



• We will often take a signal that is defined only over an interval  $T_0$  and use periodic extension to make a periodic signal.

#### Complex Signals

- So far, we have only considered real (or integer) valued signals.
- Signals can also be complex

$$z(t) = x(t) + jy(t)$$

where x(t) and y(t) are each real valued signals, and  $j = \sqrt{-1}$ .

- Arises naturally in many problems
  - Convenient representation for sinusoids
  - Communications
  - Radar, sonar, ultrasound

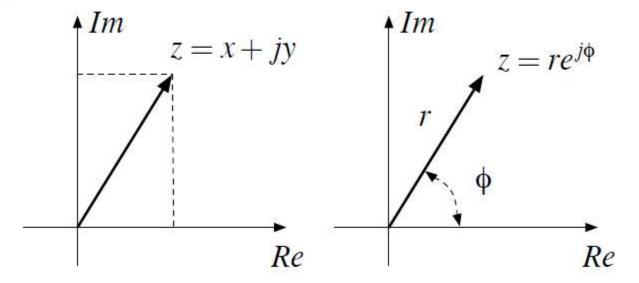
#### Review of Complex Numbers

Complex number in Cartesian form: z = x + jy

- $x = \Re z$ , the real part of z
- $y = \Im z$ , the imaginary part of z
- x and y are also often called the in-phase and quadrature components of z.
- $j = \sqrt{-1}$  (engineering notation)
- $i = \sqrt{-1}$  (physics, chemistry, mathematics)

Complex number in polar form:  $z = re^{j\phi}$ 

- r is the modulus or magnitude of z
- $\bullet$   $\phi$  is the *angle* or *phase* of z
- $\exp(j\phi) = \cos\phi + j\sin\phi$



• complex exponential of z = x + jy:

$$e^z = e^{x+jy} = e^x e^{jy} = e^x (\cos y + j \sin y)$$

Know how to add, multiply, and divide complex numbers, and be able to go between representations easily.

#### Signal Energy and Power

If i(t) is the current through a resistor, then the energy dissipated in the resistor is

$$E_R = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T}^{T} i^2(t) R dt$$

This is energy in Joules.

The signal energy for i(t) is defined as the energy dissipated in a 1  $\Omega$  resistor

$$E_i = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T}^{T} i^2(t) dt$$

The signal energy for a (possibly complex) signal x(t) is

$$E_{x} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T}^{T} |x(t)|^{2} dt.$$

In most applications, this is not an actual energy (most signals aren't actually applied to  $1\Omega$  resistor).

The average of the signal energy over time is the signal power

#### Properties of Energy and Power Signals

An energy signal x(t) has zero power

$$P_{x} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \underbrace{\int_{-T}^{T} |x(t)|^{2} dt}_{\to E_{x} < \infty}$$
$$= 0$$

A power signal has infinite energy

$$E_{x} = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-T}^{T} |x(t)|^{2} dt$$

$$= \lim_{T \to \infty} 2T \underbrace{\frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^{T} |x(t)|^{2} dt}_{\to P_{x} > 0} = \infty.$$

#### Sinusoidal Signals

A sinusoidal signal is of the form

$$x(t) = \cos(\omega t + \theta).$$

where the radian frequency is  $\omega$ , which has the units of radians/s.

Also very commonly written as

$$x(t) = A\cos(2\pi f t + \theta).$$

where f is the frequency in Hertz.

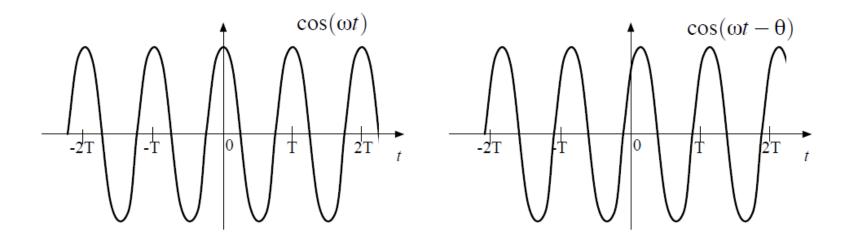
• We will often refer to  $\omega$  as the frequency, but it must be kept in mind that it is really the *radian frequency*, and the *frequency* is actually f.

• The period of the sinuoid is

$$T = \frac{1}{f} = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

with the units of seconds.

• The phase or phase angle of the signal is  $\theta$ , given in radians.

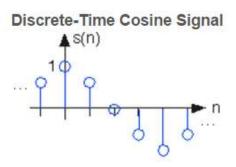


#### Sinusoids

One of the most important elemental signal that you will deal with is the real-valued sinusoid. In its discrete-time form, we write the general expression as

$$A\cos(\omega n + \varphi)$$

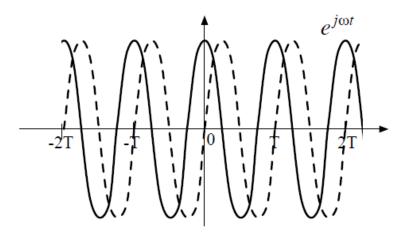
where A is the amplitude,  $\omega$  is the frequency, and  $\varphi$  is the phase. Because n only takes integer values, the resulting function is only periodic if  $\frac{2\pi}{\omega}$  is a rational number.



### Complex Sinusoids

- The Euler relation defines  $e^{j\phi} = \cos \phi + j \sin \phi$ .
- A complex sinusoid is

$$Ae^{j(\omega t+\theta)} = A\cos(\omega t + \theta) + jA\sin(\omega t + \theta).$$



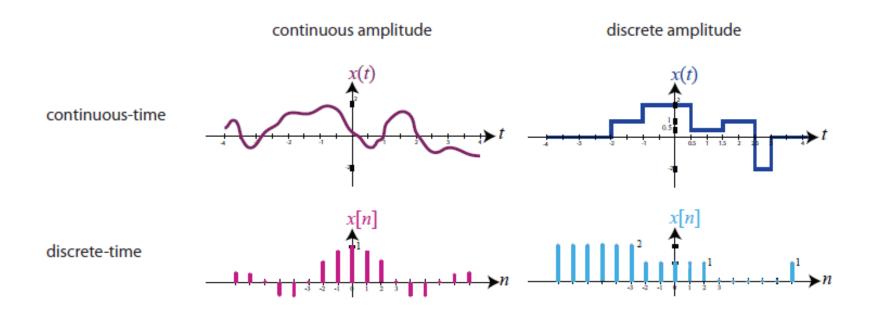
Real sinusoid can be represented as the real part of a complex sinusoid

$$\Re\{Ae^{j(\omega t+\theta)}\} = A\cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

### Analog ve Sayısal İşaretler

Analog İşaret -> sürekli zaman ve sürekli genlik değerleri

Sayısal İşaret -> ayrık zaman ve ayrık genlik değerleri



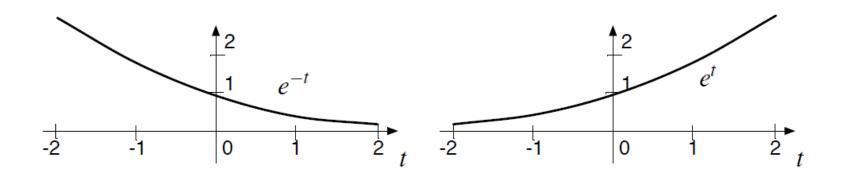
```
clear all;
load train;
%% Example---Listening to/plotting train signal
sound (y, Fs)
t=0:1/Fs:(length(y)-1)/Fs;
figure(2); plot(t,y'); grid
vlabel('v[n]'); xlabel('n')
%% Example---Using stem to plot 200 samples of train
figure (3)
n=100:299;
stem(n,y(100:299)); ylabel('y[n]'); xlabel('n')
title('Segment of train signal')
axis([100 299 -0.5 0.5])
```

### Exponential Signals

An exponential signal is given by

$$x(t) = e^{\sigma t}$$

- If  $\sigma$  < 0 this is exponential decay.
- If  $\sigma > 0$  this is exponential growth.

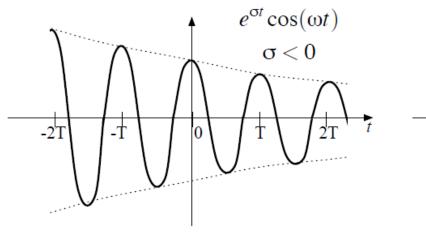


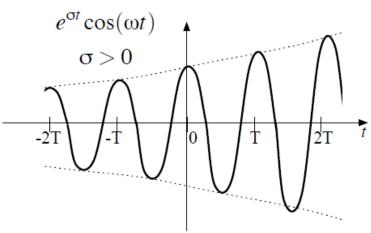
### Damped or Growing Sinusoids

A damped or growing sinusoid is given by

$$x(t) = e^{\sigma t} \cos(\omega t + \theta)$$

• Exponential growth  $(\sigma > 0)$  or decay  $(\sigma < 0)$ , modulated by a sinusoid.



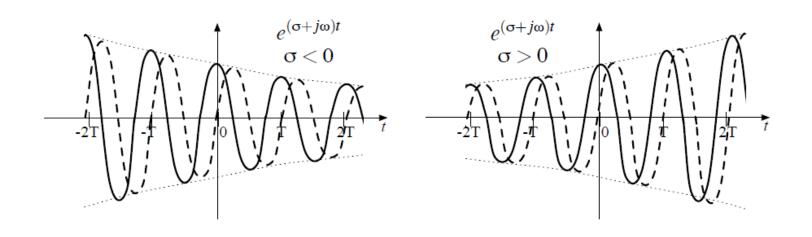


### Complex Exponential Signals

A complex exponential signal is given by

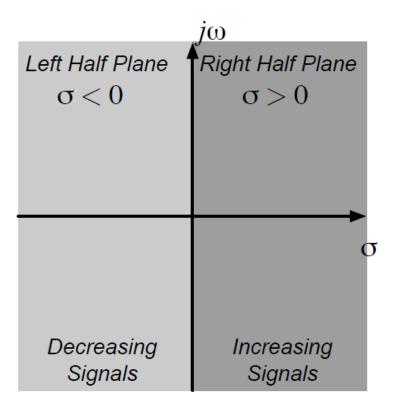
$$e^{(\sigma+j\omega)t+j\theta} = e^{\sigma t}(\cos(\omega t + \theta) + i\sin(\omega t + \theta))$$

- A exponential growth or decay, modulated by a complex sinusoid.
- Includes all of the previous signals as special cases.



### Complex Plane

Each complex frequency  $s = \sigma + j\omega$  corresponds to a position in the complex plane.

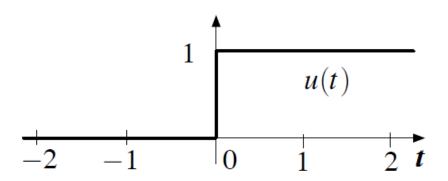


### Unit Step Functions

• The unit step function u(t) is defined as

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1, & t \ge 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

- Also known as the *Heaviside step function*.
- Alternate definitions of value exactly at zero, such as 1/2.



#### Unit Step

Another very basic signal is the unit-step function defined as

$$u\left[ n
ight] =\left\{ egin{array}{ll} 0 & ext{if} & n<0 \ 1 & ext{if} & n\geq0 \end{array} 
ight.$$

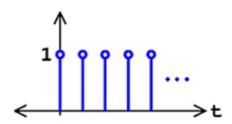


Figure 3. Discrete-Time Unit-Step Function

#### Birim basamak işareti:

```
clc; clear all;
%%
n=-10:10;
x = 0.*n;
for i=1:length(n)
    if (n(i)>=0)
        x(i)=1;
    end
end
stem(n,x,'filled');
```

The step function is a useful tool for testing and for defining other signals. For example, when different shifted versions of the step function are multiplied by other signals, one can select a certain portion of the signal and zero out the rest.

#### Örnek:

Aşağıda verilen 2 işareti çizelim.

a) 
$$f[n] = u[n-5]$$

b) 
$$g[n] = 10u[n-5] + 10u[n+5]$$

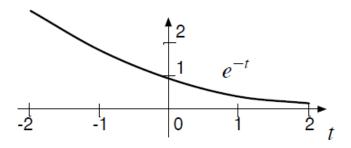
#### Uses for the unit step:

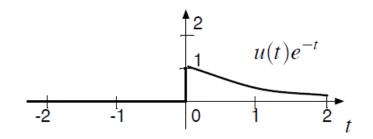
 Extracting part of another signal. For example, the piecewise-defined signal

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-t}, & t \ge 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

can be written as

$$x(t) = u(t)e^{-t}$$



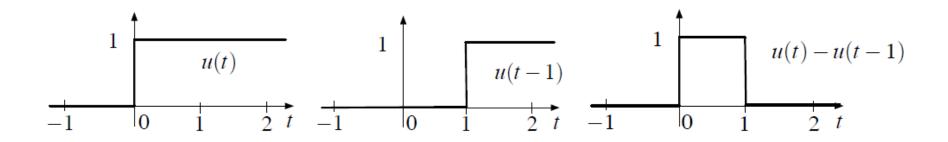


 Combinations of unit steps to create other signals. The offset rectangular signal

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t \ge 1 \\ 1, & 0 \le t < 1 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

can be written as

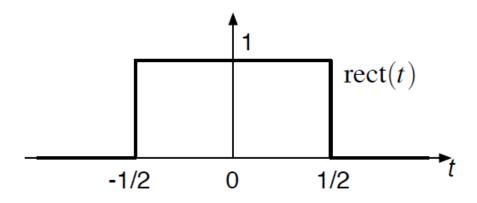
$$x(t) = u(t) - u(t-1).$$



#### Unit Rectangle

Unit rectangle signal:

$$rect(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |t| \le 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



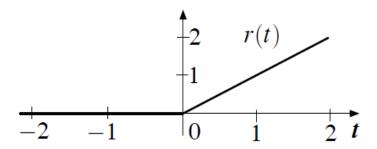
#### Unit Ramp

• The unit ramp is defined as

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} t, & t \ge 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

The unit ramp is the integral of the unit step,

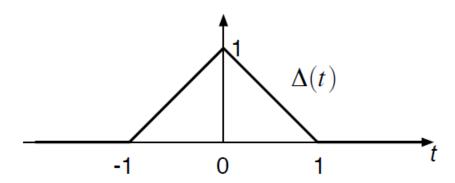
$$r(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{t} u(\tau) d\tau$$



#### Unit Triangle

Unit Triangle Signal

$$\Delta(t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 1 - |t| & ext{if } |t| < 1 \ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{array} 
ight.$$

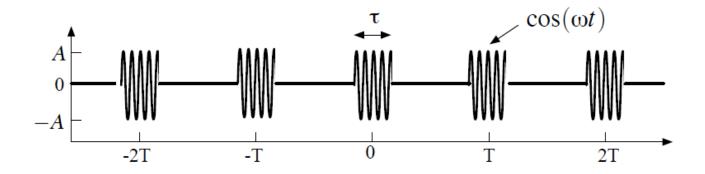


# Signals and Systems Pro

#### More Complex Signals

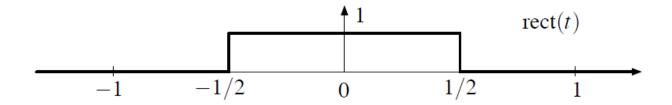
Many more interesting signals can be made up by combining these elements.

Example: Pulsed Doppler RF Waveform (we'll talk about this later!)

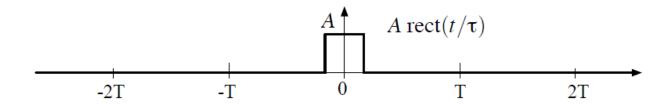


RF cosine gated on for  $\tau$   $\mu$ s, repeated every T  $\mu$ s, for a total of N pulses.

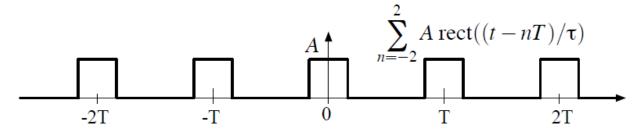
Start with a simple rect(t) pulse



Scale to the correct duration and amplitude for one subpulse

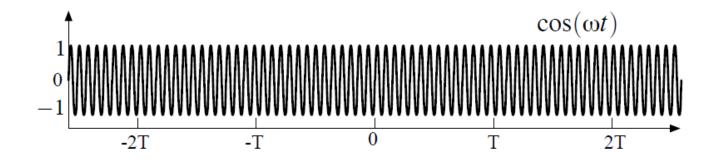


Combine shifted replicas

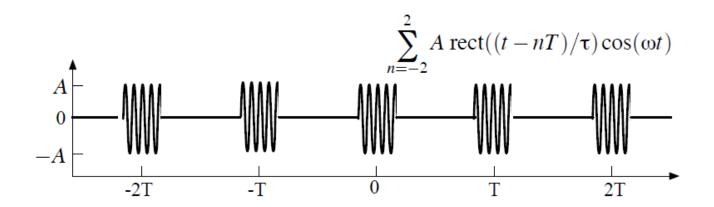


This is the *envelope* of the signal.

Then multiply by the RF carrier, shown below



to produce the pulsed Doppler waveform

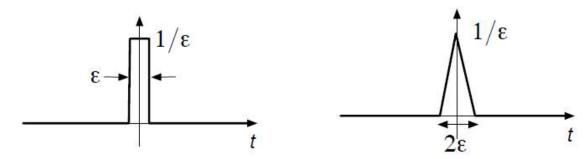


#### Impulsive signals

(Dirac's) delta function or impulse  $\delta$  is an idealization of a signal that

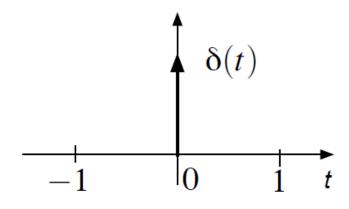
- is very large near t=0• is very small away from t=0• has integral 1

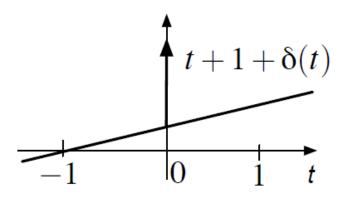
#### for example:



- the exact shape of the function doesn't matter  $\epsilon$  is small (which depends on context)

On plots  $\delta$  is shown as a solid arrow:





#### Unit Impulses

The second-most important discrete-time signal is the unit sample, which is defined as

$$\delta\left[n
ight] = \left\{egin{array}{ll} 1 & ext{if} & n=0 \\ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

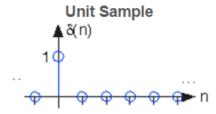


Figure 2. The unit sample.

#### Birim dürtü işareti:

```
clc; clear all;
%%
n=-10:10;
x = 0.*n;
for i=1:length(n)
    if (n(i)>=0)
        x(i)=1;
    end
end
stem(n,x,'filled');
```

More detail is provided in the section on the discrete time impulse function. For now, it suffices to say that this signal is crucially important in the study of discrete signals, as it allows the sifting property to be used in signal representation and signal decomposition.

#### Formal properties

Formally we **define**  $\delta$  by the property that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\delta(t) dt = f(0)$$

provided f is continuous at t = 0

**idea:**  $\delta$  acts over a time interval very small, over which  $f(t) \approx f(0)$ 

- $\delta(t)$  is not really defined for any t, only its behavior in an integral.
- Conceptually  $\delta(t) = 0$  for  $t \neq 0$ , infinite at t = 0, but this doesn't make sense mathematically.

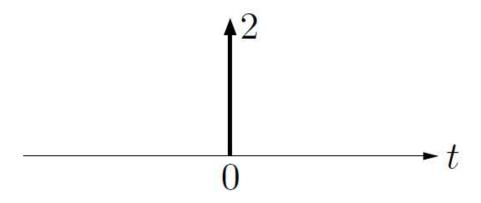
#### Scaled impulses

 $\alpha\delta(t)$  is an impulse at time T, with magnitude or strength  $\alpha$ . We have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \alpha \delta(t) f(t) dt = \alpha f(0)$$

provided f is continuous at 0

On plots: write area next to the arrow, e.g., for  $2\delta(t)$ ,



#### Multiplication of a Function by an Impulse

• Consider a function  $\phi(x)$  multiplied by an impulse  $\delta(t)$ ,

$$\phi(t)\delta(t)$$

If  $\phi(t)$  is continuous at t=0, can this be simplified?

• Substitute into the formal definition with a continuous f(t) and evaluate,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t) \left[ \phi(t) \delta(t) \right] dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[ f(t) \phi(t) \right] \delta(t) dt$$
$$= f(0) \phi(0)$$

Hence

$$\phi(t)\delta(t) = \phi(0)\delta(t)$$

is a scaled impulse, with strength  $\phi(0)$ .

#### Sifting property

- The signal  $x(t) = \delta(t T)$  is an impulse function with impulse at t = T.
- For f continuous at t = T,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\delta(t-T) dt = f(T)$$

- Multiplying by a function f(t) by an impulse at time T and integrating, extracts the value of f(T).
- This will be important in modeling sampling later in the course.

#### Limits of Integration

The integral of a  $\delta$  is non-zero only if it is in the integration interval:

• If a < 0 and b > 0 then

$$\int_a^b \delta(t) \ dt = 1$$

because the  $\delta$  is within the limits.

• If a > 0 or b < 0, and a < b then

$$\int_a^b \delta(t) \ dt = 0$$

because the  $\delta$  is outside the integration interval.

• Ambiguous if a = 0 or b = 0

Our convention: to avoid confusion we use limits such as a- or b+ to denote whether we include the impulse or not.

$$\int_{0+}^{1} \delta(t) \ dt = 0, \quad \int_{0-}^{1} \delta(t) \ dt = 1, \quad \int_{-1}^{0-} \delta(t) \ dt = 0, \quad \int_{-1}^{0+} \delta(t) \ dt = 1$$

#### example:

$$\int_{-2}^{3} f(t)(2 + \delta(t+1) - 3\delta(t-1) + 2\delta(t+3)) dt$$

$$= 2 \int_{-2}^{3} f(t) dt + \int_{-2}^{3} f(t)\delta(t+1) dt - 3 \int_{-2}^{3} f(t)\delta(t-1) dt$$

$$+ 2 \int_{-2}^{3} f(t)\delta(t+3)) dt$$

$$= 2 \int_{-2}^{3} f(t) dt + f(-1) - 3f(1)$$

#### Physical interpretation

Impulse functions are used to model physical signals

- that act over short time intervals
- whose effect depends on integral of signal

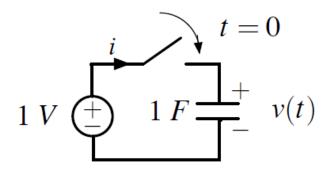
**example:** hammer blow, or bat hitting ball, at t=2

- force f acts on mass m between t = 1.999 sec and t = 2.001 sec
- $\int_{1.999}^{2.001} f(t) dt = I$  (mechanical impulse, N·sec)
- blow induces change in velocity of

$$v(2.001) - v(1.999) = \frac{1}{m} \int_{1.999}^{2.001} f(\tau) d\tau = I/m$$

For most applications, model force as impulse at t = 2, with magnitude I.

example: rapid charging of capacitor



assuming v(0) = 0, what is v(t), i(t) for t > 0?

- i(t) is very large, for a very short time
- a unit charge is transferred to the capacitor 'almost instantaneously'
- ullet v(t) increases to v(t)=1 'almost instantaneously'

To calculate i, v, we need a more detailed model.

#### In conclusion,

- ullet large current i acts over very short time between t=0 and  $\epsilon$
- total charge transfer is  $\int_0^\epsilon i(t) dt = 1$
- resulting change in v(t) is  $v(\epsilon) v(0) = 1$
- ullet can approximate i as impulse at t=0 with magnitude 1

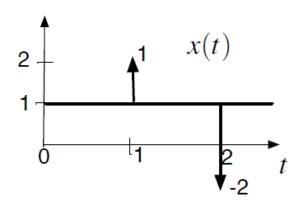
#### Modeling current as impulse

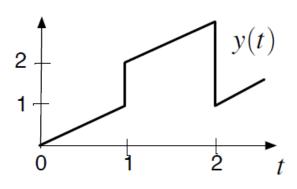
- obscures details of current signal
- obscures details of voltage change during the rapid charging
- preserves total change in charge, voltage
- ullet is reasonable model for time scales  $\gg \epsilon$

#### Integrals of impulsive functions

Integral of a function with impulses has jump at each impulse, equal to the magnitude of impulse

**example:** 
$$x(t) = 1 + \delta(t - 1) - 2\delta(t - 2)$$
; define  $y(t) = \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau$ 





#### Derivatives of discontinuous functions

Conversely, derivative of function with discontinuities has impulse at each jump in function

- Derivative of unit step function u(t) is  $\delta(t)$
- Signal y of previous page

$$y'(t) = 1 + \delta(t-1) - 2\delta(t-2)$$

